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THE EFFECTS OF THE DUSO PROGRAM ON CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPTS

by

(C) ANN ELIZABETH MASON SWINDLEHURST

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled The Effects of the DUSO Program on Children's Self-Concepts submitted by Ann Elizabeth Mason Swindlehurst in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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Date January 6, 1978

ABSTRACT

This investigation was undertaken in order to fulfil an apparent need for more information concerning the influence of the DUSO (Developing Understanding of Self and Others) program on children's self-concepts. This developmental guidance program purports to assist in building more positive self-concepts and feelings of adequacy in children. Both self-perceptions and behavioral manifestations of self-concept change were viewed. It was also a purpose of the study to utilize teachers as program implementers, since they have more interaction and involvement with their students than a counsellor does. In order to analyze the effects of the DUSO program, it was also necessary to determine whether the belief systems and attitudes of the co-operating teachers influenced DUSO treatment effects by teachers' varied approaches to classroom management and interaction procedures.

The literature reviewed suggested that the child's self-concept comprises his sense of identity which includes his estimation of his own success, capability, significance and worth. The influence of the self-concept is pervasive upon achievement, motivation and interpersonal relationships.

Participants in the study included 112 grade five students and 4 teachers from Athabasca Elementary School, Athabasca, Alberta. Fifty-six children and two teachers were actively involved with the

DUSO program. The remaining children functioned as a control group with the other two teachers acting as behavioral raters. Unit I of the DUSO-DII program, Understanding the Self, was completed.

Pre- and post-measures of student-reported self-esteem, a dimension of the self-concept, and objective, behavioral ratings of self-esteem were obtained. As well, teacher beliefs and attitudes toward the learning process and the students were assessed.

The results of this study clearly indicated that the children who participated in the DUSO program experienced significant changes in internal and external manifestations of self-esteem. These alterations appeared to be due to the DUSO-DII program undertaken over a treatment period. The significant correlation among the four teachers' belief systems indicated a similarity of teaching styles and attitudes toward children and the learning process.

This study contributed to the body of research supporting the reputation of the DUSO program as an aid in assisting self-concept development in children.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Traditionally, the elementary school has been concerned almost exclusively with the development of basic academic skills (Lewis, 1968). Increasingly, however, attention is focusing on the interaction between affective and cognitive components in the learning process. There is a significant interaction between the two areas as Coopersmith (1959) and Brookover, Paterson and Thomas (1964) have demonstrated.

Unattended or unidentified emotional or academic difficulties can lead ultimately to situations such as school dropouts, under-achievement and socially disturbed or intellectually handicapped students. Because most of these problems are identifiable as early as grade one (Strom & Torrance, 1973), many North American school boards have initiated pupil personnel services which emphasize the importance of the early school years in subsequent educational and social progress. O'Keefe (1970) reports that "there are one million young children in Canada suffering from emotional and learning disorders" (p. 75). It is obvious, then, that attention must be paid to early intervention as the prognosis for older children or adults whose problems have been ignored is not encouraging.

Guidance and counselling services vary with the philosophical orientations of different school boards. Whereas some emphasize diagnostic evaluations, others are concerned with remedial counselling

for a few children, their parents and teachers. Developmental guidance, "interpreted as a service to all children in making maximum use of their abilities, for their own good and for that of society" (Dinkmeyer, 1968, p. 1), seeks to improve the learning environment of both the school and home so that the educative process becomes more personal. A developmental program attempts to reconcile the uniqueness of the individual with societal and cultural demands (Dinkmeyer, 1968). Because it is not crisis oriented, there is less emphasis on remediation and therapy and more on awareness of self and others. Developmental guidance is thus an attempt to reach all students and assist them in learning skills which will generalize to everyday social and academic situations.

It is generally agreed that developmental guidance programs should be utilized at all grade levels but particularly in the elementary grades (Schulman, Ford & Busk, 1973). Developmental programs focus on basic, common, sequential stages of cognitive and emotional growth with prevention as a primary orientation. These programs are for every child, not just the disturbed, maladjusted, delinquent or non-learner. According to Smith (1970), the functions of a developmental program are to:

(a) identify problems and defects which may be corrected and thus enable the child to function at his full potential;

(b) prevent abnormalities in normal growth and development;

(c) motivate the child to keep himself in an optimal state of mind and body;

(d) evaluate the whole child in relation to his own growth and progress and in relation to the growth and progress of other children in his own age group (p. 18).

Developmental guidance programs are extended to entire classrooms with the counsellor acting as a consultant and the teacher, who generally has closer rapport with the children, functioning as the primary agent (Faust, 1968).

Several formalized guidance programs such as Self Enhancing Education (Randolph & Howe, 1966), Developing Understanding of Self and Others (Dinkmeyer, 1970), Magic Circle (Bessell & Palomares, 1970) and Focus (Anderson & Henner, 1972) have been developed to meet the apparent need for affective education in the classroom. Because the developmental guidance concept is a relatively recent introduction, experimentation with a variety of approaches is occurring (Hawes, 1969; Bedrosian, Sara & Pearlman, 1970; Altmann & Firnesz, 1973; Gumaer & Voorneveld, 1975). All of these programs emphasize the significance of the self-concept which is defined by Perkins (1958) as "those perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the individual views as describing himself" (p. 221). These programs attempt, through varied activities, to positively enhance the child's self-perceptions.

The Problem Under Investigation

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of Unit I of the DUSO-DII (Developing Understanding of Self and Others) program on children's total self-concept. The study proposes to assess alterations in the self-concepts of grade five children after they have experienced the DUSO unit which focuses specifically on self-understanding and self-concept development.

The DUSO program is specifically designed as a planned, developmental group experience which assists in building more positive self-concepts and feelings of adequacy in children. It emphasizes the child as a "thinking, acting and feeling being" (Dinkmeyer, 1973, p. xi) who learns to cope with his own expectations as well as those of peers and significant adults. Unit I of the DUSO-DII program focuses on enabling the child to differentiate between his real self and his ideal self. Through planned activities, the child recognizes and appreciates his own unique capacities as well as others. In developing self-awareness and a positive self-concept, he becomes able to understand individual motivation, needs and differences. Unit I is "designed to help the child appreciate himself as unique, worthy of respect as well as self-respect... to accept his strengths while realistically accepting lack of success" (Dinkmeyer, 1973, p. xiii).

Numerous elementary schools in Northern Alberta are employing DUSO kits anticipating that more effective and affective classroom learning situations will develop. The kits are very attractive in format.

They are also expensive both in terms of money and staff training time. Teachers and children have reportedly reacted enthusiastically to their introduction and use (Koval & Hales, 1972; Eldridge, Barcikowski & Witmer, 1973; Zingle, 1973).

Dinkmeyer (1973) reports widespread testing to produce resource material during development of the DUSO program but there is little current research available supporting its validity. A concern of this study arises from the sparse and somewhat contradictory evidence of the DUSO program's efficacy in promoting change in self-concept development. Because research indicates that non-directive group activity tends to positively influence children's perceptions of themselves and others (Drowne, 1971; Howard & Zimpfer, 1972), an investigation of the validity of DUSO instructional material is warranted. Previous studies (Eldridge et al, 1973; Cleminshaw, 1973) which reported significant results utilized an instrument devised by the program's developers. There appears to be a need to evaluate self-concept changes with a device specifically designed to assess this global personality dimension.

A second apparent concern involves external or behavioral manifestations of change due to exposure to the program. Other investigations into the DUSO program's relevance concentrated solely on personality factors (Eldridge et al, 1973; Koval & Hales, 1972). It appears significant, therefore, to determine whether both self-perceptions and behavioral factors are affected by exposure to a

structured "Self-Concept Development" Program.

An additional concern is that of teacher involvement in the program. Although usually the counsellor functions as a consultant in setting up a DUSO program and assists in training the teachers in its implementation, there are many situations where the counsellor actually runs it on a weekly basis. Evidence cites the significance of the teacher's influence on children's self-perceptions (Rosenthal, 1973). The present study will, therefore, focus on the classroom teacher as the primary program agent and attempt to determine whether teacher beliefs affect changes in the self-concepts of students involved in a DUSO program.

Purpose of the Study

The major thrust of this research is to investigate the effect of the DUSO program upon changes in measures of self-concept at the upper-elementary school level. Both self-perceptions and behavioral dimensions of self-concept change will be viewed. As well, the study will attempt to determine whether teacher beliefs have an effect upon the program's implementation.

Limitations of the Study

There are two limitations of the study which are immediately apparent. The sample is restricted to students and teachers in one grade at one particular school in northern Alberta. Because the teachers were enrolled in a spring session course at the University of

Alberta and volunteered to participate in the study as a partial fulfillment of their course requirements, the DUSO program did not continue for its maximum time span. The total number of sessions were, however, adequate to cover a unit on self-acceptance, the dimension which is under investigation.

Chapter II

Review of Related Research

The Self-Concept

> The Self is the sum total of all that a person can call his ... it is a person's awareness of all the beliefs, attitudes and opinions which he holds about himself (Hamachek, 1973, p. 262).

Resulting from "present and past self-observations" (Raimy, 1948, p. 154), the self-concept is "the most stable, consistent value in life" (Moustakas, 1956, p. 8). It is the person's sense of identity as a being, separate and distinct from others. The self-concept "includes the person's ideas of the kind of person he is, the characteristics he possesses, and his most important and striking traits" (Coopersmith & Feldman, 1974, p. 198).

Wylie (1961) suggests that the self-concept is composed of metadimensions including self-esteem, clarity, abstraction, refinement, certainty, stability and realism. These metadimensions enable one to study a particular aspect of the self-concept. Coopersmith focuses on self-esteem as the most important aspect of the total self-concept. He defines it as the "evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 5). While the self-concept comprises the individual's view of himself, self-esteem is the value he places upon his own success, capability, significance and worth. A child's level of self-esteem

represents his judgment of the self-concept he has formed through his interpretation of reactions from his physical and social environments. Self-esteem is a function of the degrees of coincidence between the individual's ideal and actual self-concepts (Stottard, Thorley, Thoren, Cohen & Zerder, 1957).

Maladjustment and ineffectual functioning may result from a discrepancy between the individual's view of his self and his ideal self (Bills, Vance & McLean, 1951). Alternatively, the fully functioning person's two "selves" are relatively congruent. Children with adequate self-concepts perceive themselves in essentially positive ways, accept themselves and others, and perceive themselves as closely identified with others (Combs & Snygg, 1959).

The influence of the self-concept is pervasive upon children's ability to successfully learn and achieve in school. The individual has to perceive himself as capable of succeeding before he can actually do so. Affect and cognition are, therefore, present in every learning situation with "subject matter and feeling so closely intertwined that they can no longer be considered a duality" (Kelley, 1965, p. 455).

The importance of a child's self-concept and its influence upon motivation, achievement and behavior is recognized by numerous psychologists and educators. Research indicates that the self-concept has a function in cognitive, academic and affective functioning.

(a) <u>The Cognitive Self-Concept</u>

The self is the individual's frame of refer-

> ence, the central core, around which the remainder of the perceptual field is organized ... the self is both product of the individual's experience and producer of whatever new experience he is capable of (Combs & Snygg, 1959, p. 146).

The world exists for the individual only as he is conscious of it. Events assume importance or significance in terms of their relationship to the individual and his interpretation of them.

Generally, the self is resistant to change. If an individual finds a potentially new concept of himself to be consistent with and relevant to the existing concepts in his systematized view of himself, it is accepted and assimilated easily. If the concept has no relation or relevance to the existing system, it is generally ignored. If it is inconsistent and uncongenial with the system, it is likely to be distorted or rejected (Purkey, 1970).

Kohlberg (1968), in reviewing Piagetian theory, states "cognitive processes ... (are) ... a reorganization of psychological structures resulting from organism-environment interactions" (p. 1014). Coopersmith (1967) agrees, stating that "attitudes engender a readiness to respond to particular stimuli along predetermined lines" (p. 23).

Developed from prior experience, the cognitive self-concept involves attitudes and convictions toward one's own capabilities and worth. These expectations may be reflected in an individual's attitude toward new experiences. The estimates of success and failure reflect the individual's conviction that he is or is not able to deal with the

situations that he encounters.

(b) The Academic Self Concept

"Few factors are more important to the child's academic success than his evaluation and acceptance of himself" (Dinkmeyer, 1971b, p. 65). Rogers (1951), Moustakas (1956) and Maslow (1962), viewing the self-concept as central to man's behavior, suggest that when a child is forced to protect his self, he must neglect higher, more complex needs such as learning.

Lecky (1945) was one of the first psychologists to postulate that low academic achievement could be related to the student's conception of himself as unable to learn academic material. He observed that some children made the same number of spelling errors per page regardless of the material's difficulty. They appeared to be reacting to a self-fulfilling incompetency prophecy. Counselling focusing only on the children's feelings about their spelling abilities resulted in improved scores. Hamachek (1973) concurs: "Many students have difficulty in school ... because they have learned to consider themselves unable to do academic work" (p. 262).

Primavera, Simon and Primavera (1974) compared the self-esteem and achievement scores of grade five and six students. Finding that self-esteem was significantly related to academic success, they state:

> The self-concept can affect all areas of personality functioning in such a way that it can operate to enhance or restrict a student's

ability to fulfill his native capacity (p. 215).

The successful student is likely to see himself in essentially positive ways. Gowan (1960) reported that achievers are characterized by self-confidence, self-acceptance and a positive self-concept. Farls (1967) found that high-achieving intermediate grade boys and girls reported significantly higher general self-concepts as students than did lower-achieving students ($p < .05$).

(c) Affective Self-Concept

"Self-esteem is significantly related to the individual's basic style of adapting to environmental demands" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 46). The same external event is perceived and responded to in individual and characteristic ways of approach and perception.

Coopersmith's long-term study (1967) revealed that persons with high and low self-esteem adapt to events in markedly different ways. "They experience the same or similar events differently; they have different expectations of the future and markedly different affective reactions" (p. 46). Coopersmith found that high-esteem students saw themselves optimistically and realistically. They perceived themselves as valuable and important, worthy of respect and friendship. Low-affective students, in contrast, saw themselves pessimistically. They saw themselves as failing, they were unsure of their capabilities and felt unworthy of friendship. The difference in the two extremes is in the individual's perception of his situation and his actions.

Roth (1959) concluded his self-concept study: "In terms of

their perception of self, individuals have a definite commitment to perform as they do" (p. 281). Where the person who perceives himself as capable and successful, responds in positive, active ways to situational demands, the person with the inadequate affective self-concept accepts failure as a tentative hypothesis before he even acts and responds accordingly.

Characteristics of Individuals with High Self-Esteem

Investigators have identified several distinguishing features which characterize individuals with high self-esteem. Cohen (1957) states that individuals with high self-esteem tend to protect themselves from negative self-evaluation. He suggests that they are able to objectively evaluate a failure as a small failure and a success as a large success.

Coopersmith (1959) lists the general characteristics of individuals possessing high self-esteem:

1. Individuals with high self-esteem tend to be more effective in meeting environmental demands than those with low self-esteem.
2. Persons with high self-esteem tend to adopt an active and assertive position in meeting environmental demands.
3. High self-esteem is associated with such terms as self-respect, superiority, pride, self-acceptance and self-love.

4. Persons with high self-esteem tend to be more independent in conformity inducing situations and to manifest great confidence that they will succeed.
5. High self-esteem individuals tend to be popular with their peers.
6. An individual with high self-esteem is apt to attend to others only to the extent that he esteems them.
7. High self-esteem persons tend to participate in more exploratory and independent activities than do individuals with low self-esteem.
8. High self-esteemed individuals tend to defend themselves well against threats to their adequacy.
9. High self-esteemed individuals tend to possess greater confidence in their ability to deal with events. Anxiety is less likely to be aroused in them. They tend to have a greater ability to resist the negative implications of social judgments.

Characteristics of Individuals with Low Self-Esteem

Cohen (1957) states that individuals with low self-esteem, because they do not protect themselves from negative evaluation, are more likely to evaluate an objective failure as a very poor performance and a success as a small success.

Coopersmith (1959) lists the characteristics of individuals

possessing low self-esteem:

1. Individuals with low self-esteem tend to withdraw from others and have consistent feelings of distress.
2. Individuals with low self-esteem tend to be more intropunitive and passive in adapting to environmental demands and pressures than individuals with high self-esteem.
3. Low self-esteem tends to be equated with inferiority, timidity, self-hatred, lack of personal acceptance and submissiveness.
4. Individuals low in self-esteem tend to exhibit higher levels of anxiety and are more likely to exhibit psychosomatic symptoms and feelings of depression than individuals with high self-esteem.
5. Individuals with low self-esteem tend to be isolates who feel that they have greater difficulties forming friendships. However, there is no relationship between self-esteem and group membership. Persons of all levels of confidence and assurance are equally likely to join social groups but the roles they play are different.
6. Low self-esteemed individuals tend not to resist social pressures.
7. Individuals with low self-esteem are more likely to remain quiet if they feel dissent will evoke personal

attack. They are often unwilling to express contrary opinions even when they know they are correct. They tend to react strongly to criticism.

8. Low self-esteemed individuals tend to be invisible members of a group. They rarely serve as leaders.
9. Low self-esteemed individuals tend to lack the confidence to respect the critical appraisal of others. They remain defeated and exposed in their real or imagined deficiencies.
10. Individuals with low self-esteem tend to be more self-conscious when talking to others. They tend to be more conscious of their real or imagined inadequacies.
11. Low self-esteemed individuals will more likely turn inward and dwell upon themselves when distracted by personal concerns.

Developmental View of the Self-Concept

Approaches to understanding the self-concept, its development and role in behavior vary according to one's view of man. All psychological theorists agree, however, on the importance of early childhood experiences to later adequate growth. Three psychological viewpoints on the formation of the self-concept are reviewed. As well, pertinent research on self-concept development and the influence of significant others on the child's view of himself are investigated.

(a) Theorists

Maslow

Viewing man's ultimate goal as self-actualization, Maslow (1943, 1970) proposes a motivational framework which is developmental in nature. His model is tied to a set of values about human effectiveness and human nature.

Maslow identifies six basic need categories: (1) physiological, (2) safety, (3) belonging and love, (4) esteem, (5) self-actualization, and (6) the desire to know and understand. Each basic need represents a "universal personality problem which must be managed or solved before higher development can take place" (Maslow, 1956, p. 243). Once a need has been relatively well-satisfied, it no longer serves as a motivator, and needs at the next level take over.

Maslow views the infant as totally dependent upon his mother for the satisfaction of basic physiological needs such as food, warmth and rest. These needs are important motivators for infants and may dominate the behavior of older children and adults such as when food is in short supply or under stress situations where psychosomatic ailments may develop.

The influence of safety needs is seen most clearly in younger children who have not learned to inhibit their reactions to threat or danger. The average child prefers a safe, orderly, predictable environment. Under perceived threat or insecurity, safety needs may dominate the individual's orientation and lessen the influence of other

needs. For example, a student who is physically frightened of another child may be more concerned with avoiding a threatening situation than with classroom learning activities.

Needs for love and belonging involve the opportunity to give as well as receive affection. The individual desires a place in social groups such as the family or peer group.

Children and adults alike have a need for a positive self-image based upon a relatively stable, positive self-evaluation and on the esteem of others. The individual may express his need for esteem through competence, mastery, adequacy, achievement and recognition. Initially, these needs are satisfied within the home but, as the child becomes involved with the world beyond his doorstep, other persons assume importance in meeting this need. Satisfaction of self-esteem needs usually leads to self-confidence and a sense of personal worth. Conversely, thwarting of these needs may lead to feelings of inferiority, weakness and discouragement.

The need for self-actualization is the need to become all that one has the potentiality to become. It may be expressed through many different kinds of pursuits. Those who achieve self-actualization are presumably among the healthiest in society.

Maslow (1968) believes that there are positive impulses in all people to satisfy curiosity, seek knowledge and explanations as well as gain understanding. These positive motives are seen as opposed to negative determinants of learning such as anxiety and fear.

Maslow views the thwarting of needs as fundamental to discouragement, neuroticism and psychopathology, depending upon the severity of the blockage. When the basic needs are satisfied, however, the individual is able to direct his energies into some kind of productive work or relationship. Early parent-child relationships and an intimate home and family life provide the child with the crucial ingredients of acceptance, affection and praise. These produce self-confidence, spontaneity and cognitive skills which enable the child to master or cope with his environment.

Piaget

Piaget views development along a continuum. He sees it as "a function of complex interaction between many factors ... including ... the nature of the social environment, and the infant's rate of physical maturation" (Ginsburg & Opper, 1969, p. 68). Piaget discards the dichotomy between the cognitive and the social-emotional (Kohlberg, 1968, p. 1014). His cognitive-developmental view is based upon the premise that cognitive and affective structures emerge naturally from the interaction between the child and his environment.

In Piagetian theory, the child is an organized entity which accommodates itself to external reality. During the first two years of life, the sensorimotor period, the infant moves from reflex interaction with the environment to symbolic thought as a means of controlling his world. Development proceeds through a process of decentration.

The child begins life in an undifferentiated state where he cannot

separate the self from the environment. Initially, he does not have a mature object concept and the world is "a series of unstable and unconnected pictures" (Ginsburg & Opper, 1969, p. 68). Neither the self nor the environment exist as separate entities. Generally, by the age of two, the child is able to differentiate between self and object, the "me" and the "not me".

Self-evaluation, for the young child, is a result of evaluations made by parents, siblings and playmates. His thought pattern from ages two to four is egocentric and concrete.

> During the sensorimotor period the infant develops his abilities in imitative behavior. When he is proficient at imitation, at a later age he begins to imitate internally, and thereby he forms the mental symbol (Ginsburg & Opper, 1969, p. 84).

Although an adult's language, to some extent, forces a child to consider the world from a new perspective, the child interprets events in terms of his own personal system of meanings. The child's meaning is not necessarily the same as the adult's. Because the child's frame of reference is particular and concrete and his language system not fully developed, adults' actions make more impact than their words.

From four to seven years (the concrete operations stage), the child's thought pattern is characterized by syncretism and juxtaposition. At this stage, children's speech and communication patterns are still egocentric. Information is interpreted idiosyncratically. Children of these ages, according to Piaget, have an absolutist concept of

rules but often do not follow them. They see adults' dictums respectfully but feel if an adult did not make them, the rules would be wrong. Their behavior is egocentric also. Children below seven generally cannot shift their attention from themselves to others and, therefore, usually cannot consider another's viewpoint or needs.

Early in elementary school, the development of conscience, morality and values begins with the emergence of representational thought and the recognition of the reversibility of rules (Piaget, 1932). The child then begins to develop a self-concept which is distinguishable from the outer world and, during pre-adolescence, feelings, concepts, attitudes and self-understanding become important. By eleven children's thought patterns have become decentred. They are able to reconcile disparate ideas. They are also able to express and consider others' needs and feelings as well as their own. Middle childhood is an important period for the development of the self-concept as the individual must then reconcile his values, ideal self and performance with the reality of the external world.

Piaget does not view these stage progressions as inviolate. Thought and behavior patterns are age-related but not age-determined. An eleven year old child, therefore, might be able to decentre cognitively yet be unable to consider or recognize others' rights. His cognitive pattern could be of a high level yet his awareness of others be at an idiosyncratic stage.

Purkey

Purkey (1970) views self-concept development as involving motivational and social constructs. He places heavy emphasis on the actions of

significant others and the individual child's interpretation of their actions.

> Self-awareness is a basic human condition which emerges during the early months of life. Gradually the infant begins to recognize the presence of significant others which sets the stage for the beginnings of awareness of self as an independent agent (Purkey, 1970, p. 28).

The child, from infancy, cognitively organizes his world and is intrinsically motivated to control it as a means of maintaining constancy. "The self is not instinctive, but is developed as a process of experience" (Purkey, 1970, p. 30). Purkey views the self as plastic, changeable and capable of growth and actualization.

Parents are seen as particularly important to the child since they provide the earliest appraisals and determine his particular environment, whether supportive or punitive. The first two years of life are the most critical in forming the child's opinion of himself. The important variables for positive self-concept development include affection, positive regard for the child's capabilities and the child's interpretation of the expressed views.

Purkey sees the school as the second most important influence on children's self-concepts. He is, however, somewhat pessimistic about the value of the current school experience as many "employ a punitive approach. Punishment, failure and deprecation are characteristic" (Purkey, 1970, p. 40). The teacher's attitudes toward himself and his students are most important to the development of children's self-concepts. An atmosphere which will enhance positive self-development includes the following factors: challenge, freedom, re-

spect, warmth, control, success. Only through a combination of all of these variables, plus a large measure of understanding of individual students' viewpoints and life experiences, can the teacher encourage positive self-concepts.

Dinkmeyer

Dinkmeyer finds that "the self-concept and the life-style are the keys to personality" (1965, p. 184). Viewing development primarily from an Adlerian viewpoint, the child's most persistent need is to find a place for himself in society. The child's self-concept arises out of his need to belong.

> All of his traits--physical, mental, social, intellectual, moral and personal ... interact to give him his view of the world. These traits in continual interaction with significant others provide the basis for the development of the self-concept (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 189).

Man's behavior is viewed as purposive and goal-oriented. His interactions with significant others are of paramount importance as they shape his perceptions of the world. Self-discovery is seen as a continual process "not appearing at a specific time but continuing throughout all developmental stages (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 193).

As the child develops, he is exposed to home, school and community experiences. The home is important because it offers the first acquisition of values, role assignment and feelings of adequacy and security.

School provides the opportunity for reformulating the self-

concept which "must be looked upon in a process of continuous change although directed by a central core of stability" (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 194). Because of the teacher's influence as a significant other, she is active in shaping the child's goals, concepts, convictions and attitudes. As the child becomes less dependent upon the teacher, he becomes more dependent upon the peer group and tends to gain part of his identity from other children.

The community is seen as having an effect upon the child because of his parents' status and the effect local values have upon school and social services which influence his surroundings.

(b) Research

Research suggests that the self-concept develops throughout the early years and tends to remain stable throughout life. Studies emphasize the importance of early home and school experiences on children's personalities and achievement patterns.

Kagan and Moss (1962) found that aspects of adult personality begin to take form during early childhood. They state:

> The continuity between child and adult behavior generally became manifest during the first four years of school. This relation was clearest for ... withdrawal, involvement in task mastery and social spontaneity (Kagan & Moss, 1962, p. 272).

The authors suggest that since withdrawal from anticipated failure becomes a pattern during the early school years, "remedial or therapeutic intervention should be applied earlier in the curriculum than is

now the case" (Kagan & Moss, p. 272).

In summarizing their research on the stability of behavior from childhood through adulthood, Kagan and Moss (1962) made the following observations:

1. Both achievement and recognition striving behaviors for age 6-10 showed significant positive correlations with similar behaviors during adulthood, the correlations ranged from .38 to .68 and all were significant at the .05 level or better.

2. The amount of increase in IQ score during the years 6-10 showed high positive correlations with the ratings of achievement behavior during adulthood ... The results suggested that achievement strivings during the first 4 years of school are a good index of future achievement behavior during adolescence and adulthood (Kagan & Moss, 1962, p. 512).

Bloom's (1964) longitudinal study of achievement underlines the importance of early learning experiences. He noted that approximately 50 per cent of general achievement in grade twelve was actually reached by the end of grade three. Bloom summarizes:

> This suggests the great importance of the first few years of school as well as the preschool period ... the implications for more powerful and effective school environments in the primary school grades are obvious (Bloom, 1964, p. 127).

A four year study of self-concept development (Stanwyck, 1973) found a "sharp drop from grade two to four" (p. 178) on self-concept scores with subsequent increases for both boys and girls to grade seven except for their perceptions of school competency. Anxiety was found to be "significantly related to self-concept level at all grades" (Stanwyck,

1973, p. 178).

Coopersmith's (1967) study focused on the conditions which foster adequate self-concept and self-esteem development. He views the formation of the self-concept as a process similar to other concept formation: "The child begins with some very global and tentative hypotheses about himself and uses ... (them) ... as a means for categorizing subsequent experiences" (Coopersmith & Feldman, 1974, p. 200). With increasing experience, the child's self-concept becomes more definite and stable but it remains open to revision and change.

In studying 85 subjects intensively, Coopersmith investigated their subjective and objective self-esteem ratings and sought to identify parental effects upon self-esteem development. His results indicate that a high degree of self-esteem may be fostered by similar practices in the home and school: a warm, nurturant relationship, reasonable standards of behavior, reinforcement for appropriate behavior and an emphasis on reasoning and decision making.

Engel (1962) investigated the stability of the self-concept in 172 middle class adolescents. She concluded:

1. Relative stability of the self-concept was demonstrated by an overall item-by-item correlation of .53 between Q sorts obtained in 1954 and 1956, with an instrument of which the test-retest reliability is .68.
2. Subjects whose self-concepts were negative at the first testing were significantly less stable in self-

concept than were subjects whose self-concepts were positive.

3. Subjects who persisted in a negative self-concept over the two year period provided evidence of significantly more maladjustment than subjects who persisted in a positive self-concept as measured by high scores on the MMPI Psychopathic-deviancy and Depression scales.
4. Subjects who showed less regard for themselves on the Q sort on retest also shifted toward significantly more maladjustment on scales Psychopathic-deviancy and Depression of the MMPI.
5. Subjects who showed more regard for themselves in the Q sort on retest, shifted toward significantly more adjustment on peer ratings.
6. The positive self-concept scores increased significantly between the two testings for the tenth and twelfth grade subjects, an increase which could not be attributed entirely to the effect of regression.

(Engel, 1962, p. 215)

(c) Significant Others

Of fundamental importance to the child's development are his interactions with significant adults in his life, particularly his parents and teachers. Peer relationships, as well, are influential in self-concept development. The child comes to know himself through the

responses that other individuals and groups make to his actions. He is moulded by the repeated behaviors of others.

Parents

"The family is the most significant single influence on the development of the child because it is there that basic attitudes are formed" (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 192). Parents reflect the child's earliest appraisals. Research indicates that parental expectations are internalized into self-perceptions (Helper, 1960; Shaw & Dutton, 1965; Brookover, Thomas & Patterson, 1964).

Marks (1973) reported a close association between the child's self-concept and how he feels his mother sees him. Both Coopersmith (1967) and Taub (1973) found a close association between parental and child self-concepts (Coopersmith: $p < .01$; Taub: $r = .38$).

The clearest picture of the enhancing home environment is reported by Coopersmith (1967). The critical variables which lead the individual to value himself include parental warmth, respectful treatment and clearly defined limits. Purkey (1970) concludes that parents must not only consider the attitudes they express toward their children but also be sensitive to how the attitudes are being perceived.

Teachers

Children enter school with a predisposition toward achievement or underachievement. Once there, the teacher assumes the role of a significant adult. "A teacher not only teaches a child how he should

perceive himself but influences an entire class' attitudes" (Brown & Macdougall, 1973, p. 321). According to Brown (1971) and Mattocks and Jew (1974), the school is the only hope for improving self-concepts which have been impaired in the home environment.

In the classroom, children's affective, cognitive and academic self-concepts may be enhanced or discouraged. The child who comes to school assuming he is capable or incapable of succeeding will tend to respond to learning situations in a predetermined manner. The teacher, as a significant adult, assumes an important role in facilitating the development of her students' achievement and their positive feelings of worth.

The most extensive review of teacher influence on students' self-perceptions and performance was undertaken by Rosenthal (1973). He found that students tended to produce behavioral or academic results consistent with the teachers' expectations. Children viewed as bright received more praise and responsive teaching methods; those perceived as dull received less encouragement and were frequently ignored. Fleming and Anttonen (1971) also reported that "high-opinion teachers tended to bring about higher academic performance than low-opinion teachers" (p. 833).

Children tend to perceive themselves in accordance with how they feel their teachers perceive them. Davidson and Lang (1960) found that children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with their own self-perceptions

($r = .83$, $p < .001$). Brookover et al (1964) reported similar results ($r = .55$, $p < .01$) as did Jones (1974). The more positive the children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings, the better was their academic achievement and the more desirable was their behavior. Subsequent studies (Jasik, 1972; McGee, 1972; Ross, 1973; LoVette, 1974; Aspy & Roebuck, 1974) reported results consistent with the above findings.

The teacher, then, is not merely a dispenser of knowledge. She has a mirroring, reflecting function in facilitating the discovery of self (Randolph & Howe, 1966). The teacher with a high personal self-concept and an accepting attitude somehow transfers this image to his students and thereby generates in them a feeling of greater self-worth simply through teaching behaviors (Trowbridge, 1972).

Ideally, the teacher serves as a model for positive attitudes and behavior and creates a climate of understanding, acceptance and encouragement. Children's ability to acquire cognitive concepts is enhanced. This type of learning is intrinsically inspired. In contrast to being contrived for external rewards, it becomes internalized, relevant and permanent.

Peers

The affective self-concept is important in the formation of social relationships, a task of the middle school years (Havighurst, 1972). Barclay (1966), in reviewing numerous studies and theoretical formulations, noted that children tend to develop a social-behavioral repertoire

which remains relatively constant and impervious to change in the absence of intervention.

In a two and one-half year study, Weinstein and Fantini (1970) identified three major concerns of elementary school pupils: self-image; disconnectedness, a wish to establish a link with peers; and control over one's life. Results of subsequent research confirm these expressed concerns. Rosenberg (1972), in a study utilizing 2,000 subjects from grades 3 to 12, found a "strong association between the self-concept and happiness (with) self-consciousness and an unstable self-concept tending to produce unhappiness" (p. 417). She also reported that both boys and girls grow more concerned with peer acceptance as they emerge into adolescence.

Children with behavioral difficulties often have problems establishing positive relationships with both teachers and peers. Using projective drawings and teacher ratings for grades one and six children, Loney (1974) found a strong association between impulse control and affective self-esteem for the older children (boys: $p < .001$; girls: $p < .02$). It was suggested that because impulsive youngsters receive negative reinforcement from adults and peers alike, they think of themselves as inadequate and unlikeable. Fryrear (1975), reviewing research, linked delinquent behavior to low self-esteem.

Influence of the Self-Concept on Achievement

A large body of research stresses the significance of an ade-

quate self-concept on school achievement. Only one study focused specifically upon academic self-concept. Others investigate the influence of self-concept on individuals' general feelings of worth.

Brookover et al (1964) conducted a study of 1050 seventh grade students to determine whether their self-concept of ability in school was positively related with their academic performance. Using an eight-item, multiple choice questionnaire to determine academic self-concept, the researchers controlled for I.Q. through an administration of the California Test of Mental Maturity. The results indicated a significant correlation ($r = .42$, males; $r = .39$, females) between academic self-concept and Grade Point Average.

Coopersmith (1959) found a positive correlation ($r = .36$, $p < .01$) between high self-esteem and academic success as assessed by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and the Iowa Achievement Test with grade five and six pupils.

Williams and Cole (1968) utilized The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Reading and Arithmetic sections of the California Achievement Test Battery to investigate the correlation between self-concept and school adjustment for grade six students. Self-concept and reading achievement were positively correlated ($r = .31$, $p < .01$) as were self-concept and arithmetic scores ($r = .33$, $p < .01$). They determined that "when intellectual ability is controlled, self-concept is a basic causal factor in determining achievement level in school" (p. 480).

In a study of grade three children's self-concept and achieve-

ment, Cole (1974) used the Children's Self-Concept Index and the Metropolitan Achievement Test. Significant correlations ($p < .05$) were found between self-concept and reading, language and mathematics.

Many studies have focused on the relationship between self-concept and reading achievement. Bodwin (1959) found that reading disability and negative self-concepts correlated significantly at the third grade level ($r = .72$, $p < .05$) and the sixth grade level ($r = .62$, $p < .05$). Jackson's (1973) study of fourth grade students and Lawson's (1974) investigation of fifth grade students both found significant correlations ($p < .05$) between self-concept and reading achievement. Studies by Shaw and Alves (1963), Dyson (1967) and Denerll (1972) found that high reading achievers reported significantly more positive ($p < .05$) self-concepts than low achievers.

Research indicates that the relationship between self-concept and academic success may be established very early. Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) used verbal and behavioral measures of self-concept (tape recordings which were classified by two independent raters into Competence and Personal Worth as well as independent behavioral ratings). They found that the self-concept scores of kindergarten children were significantly predictive of later progress in reading ($p < .05$) but not significantly related to mental ability. This study's results indicate that a child's feelings of self-worth and confidence appear to have more influence on mastery of reading concepts than his actual intellectual abilities.

From the evidence, the child with a negative self-concept appears to be led into a vicious circle. With initial self-perceptions inhibiting learning, subsequent failures reinforce a negative image. The child with an inadequate self-concept not only fears failure but expects it. The child who views himself as competent expects success. Previous situations have reinforced him in this pattern.

Use of Developmental Guidance Programs

Developmental guidance attempts to facilitate children's personal growth by integrating cognitive and affective factors (Levine, 1973). Basic to successful development is a healthy personality where, according to Erikson, the individual "actively masters his environment, shows a certain unity of personality, and is able to perceive the world and himself correctly" (1969, p. 31).

(a) Goals of Developmental Programs

A developmental program focuses on basic sequential stages of cognitive and emotional development. The program is concerned with enhancing individual growth and mastery of each stage. A developmental guidance program is premised on the child being at a crucial stage in the formation of his self-concept and his attitudes toward himself, others, and school achievement. According to Valett (1972) the primary emphasis is on the total human being.

Particular goals of a developmental program, in terms of facilitating child performance, include:

1. Assisting the child to develop increased self-understanding of the relationship between his abilities, interests, achievements and opportunities;
2. Promoting increased self-direction, problem-solving and decision making;
3. Developing wholesome attitudes, convictions and concepts about self and others which result in the "fully functioning child";
4. Assisting the child in understanding, planning, making choices and solving present and future problems;
5. Developing a sensitivity to the needs of others; a social interest in a desire to co-operate with others;
6. Understanding the causal and purposive nature of behavior and using this knowledge to understand the self and others;
7. Assisting the child in solving the fundamental tasks of life in the areas of work and social development (Dinkmeyer, 1968, p. 195).

All of these goals focus on learning activities which result in productive, responsible actions and develop the child's abilities to function for himself and others (Valett, 1972).

(b) Research with Developmental Programs

Since 1966, considerable time and effort have gone into formulating developmental, group programs to influence more positive self-

concepts among elementary school children. The programs emphasize classroom experience and not particular children with particular problems:

> Because much of children's learning occurs in groups, it is assumed that group counselling offers the most effective and economical approach for new learnings and for the unlearning of ineffective attitudes and behaviors (Myrick & Kelly, 1971, p. 137).

Preventive classroom measures based upon the developmental approach are becoming the focus of professional attention.

The use of group procedures at the elementary level has ensued from the vast amount of research and experimentation done with adult groups (Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971; Berne, 1966; Bales, 1950). With the inception of guidance programs in the early grades, group procedures have been instituted. According to Dinkmeyer and Muro (1971), the process "focuses on thoughts, feelings, attitudes, values, purposes, behavior and goals of the individual and the total group" (Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971, p. 2). Through interactions with others, the individual child is able to evaluate his feelings and actions and effect change.

Research into the effects of developmental group counselling at the elementary school level is sparse. Currently, it appears to focus on remedial rather than preventive aspects. Attention is generally focused on the efficacy of group procedures over traditional methods of therapy with concentration on behavioral manifestations of affective change such as lessened anxiety (Gumaer & Voornoveld, 1975), in-

creased reading achievement (Martin, 1973), more positive school attitude (Culbertson, 1972), more adaptive behavior (Maierhofer, 1971) and increased self-esteem (Sallade, 1972; Altmann & Firnesz, 1973).

Wisser (1971) found no difference between individual and group therapy with grade five boys. Shaw (1973) attempted to utilize classroom management techniques to alter grade six students' choice status and self-concepts. He found role playing and sociometric devices were ineffective. Difficulties cited included a short treatment administration and persistent negative self-concepts. Similar results and difficulties were reported in two additional self-concept studies (Higgins, 1972; Martin, 1973) which utilized group counselling techniques. Group studies which reported significant behavioral changes involved children, counsellor and significant adults and either teacher or parent (Maierhofer, 1971; Platt, 1971; Taylor, 1971; Palmo & Kuzniar, 1972).

Bedrosian, Sara and Pearlman (1970) found that teacher-led guidance groups were significantly more effective in developing self-concept than counsellor groups ($p < .01$). They decided that classroom teachers can effectively implement a formal guidance program when they have been trained in group techniques. This type of intervention helps prevent the accumulation of pressures and frustrations and reduces the counselling needs of children (Bedrosian, Sara & Pearlman, 1970, p. 131). Counsellor-initiated programs which teachers carried out also proved effective in studies by Jasik (1972), Retish (1973), and Brown and Macdougall (1973). A comparison of the effectiveness of

group, individual and teacher counselling by Hagen (1970) found that all experienced similar positive score changes.

Drowne's 1971 study focused on the effectiveness of three separate techniques in facilitating positive changes in self-concept. She used four small groups of five members each: two verbal counselling groups and two play media counselling groups. Study results indicate that for younger children, play media is the most effective change technique. Howard and Zimpfer (1972) found that nondirective play therapy in a group setting appeared to be the most facilitative therapeutic approach for young children.

In reviewing the studies, it appears that teacher-led groups are effective in positively altering children's self-concepts. Counsellor assistance is a necessary condition in initiating and monitoring the evidenced results in successful studies. However, significant behavioral and affective changes were also found in group studies which involved counsellors working with both children and significant adults. Confirming the effect of significant adults' perceptions on children's self-concepts, young subjects involved in these studies experienced upward score changes in their feelings of academic and social competence. Younger children appear to respond most appropriately to a multisensory approach involving play materials rather than through discussion sessions only.

(c) Developing Understanding of Self and Others

The program, Developing Understanding of Self and Others

(DUSO-DI, Dinkmeyer, 1970; DUSO-DII, Dinkmeyer, 1973), is specifically designed as a planned, developmental group experience to help build self-concept and feelings of adequacy in children. Through the use of stories, music, puppetry, role-playing activity and problem-solving experiences, children are expected to become more aware of social-emotional behavior. It is similar, although more elaborate in design, to the effective techniques reported by Drowne (1971) and Howard and Zimpfer (1972). It differs from other developmental programs such as "The Magic Circle" (Bessell & Palomares, 1970) and "Self-Enhancing Education" (Randolph & Howe, 1966) in its multi-sensory approach, a design which, from available research, seems more effective with elementary school children.

Specific areas of concentration in the DUSO program are divided into eight units of understandings which correspond with developmental program aims (Dinkmeyer, 1968, p. 195). "The total program is organized around eight major themes representing social-psychological developmental tasks" (Dinkmeyer, 1973, p. vii). The unit and cycle themes of the DUSO - DII include:

Toward Self-Identity: Developing Self-Awareness and a Positive Self-Concept

Toward Friendship: Understanding Peers

Toward Responsible Interdependence: Understanding Growth from Self-Centeredness to Social Interest

Toward Self-Reliance: Understanding Personal

Responsibility

Toward Resourcefulness and Purposefulness: Understanding Personal Motivation

Toward Competence: Understanding Accomplishment

Toward Emotional Stability: Understanding Stress

Toward Responsible Choice Making: Understanding Values

The program is designed to be used by significant adults such as the classroom teacher or counsellor. Dinkmeyer (1971a, p. 15) writes that three years of planning, evaluating and field testing were involved in the construction of the DUSO-DI program. It resulted from teacher identification of specific developmental problems which they observed in children but felt were not being adequately provided for in the school program. Field tests in 1968 and 1969-1970 were employed to modify, refine and develop materials. Following publication of the DUSO-DI Program for kindergarten and primary grade students, the DUSO-DII for upper elementary students was published. Its basic format is similar to the primary model but, in addition, it provides career-oriented materials.

Dinkmeyer comments:

> The program is based on a set of lessons and experiences for the total classroom. It focuses on normal developmental problems. The lessons are designed to be conducted in a democratic atmosphere which encourages full participation ... each child is encouraged to present his feelings, attitudes

> and reactions. It is vital to stress that there are no right or wrong answers. The teacher must be capable of hearing the feelings and perceptions of the individual, in contrast to emphasizing judgmental transactions and evaluations of pupils' contributions (Dinkmeyer, 1968, p. 213).

Despite enthusiastic reports of teacher and counsellor acceptance (Zingle, 1973; Young, 1973; Van Eldik, 1973), research on and validation of DUSO has been limited. Koval's and Hales' (1972) study of primary children indicates gains, as measured by the California Test of Personality, in independence and acceptance affected by both DUSO experience and grade level. A second study (Eldridge, Barcikowski & Witmer, 1973) found a significant difference ($p < .05$) in self-concept as measured by the DUSO Affectivity Device between experimental and control groups. Other measures employed, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, The Children's Self-Concept Index and the California Test of Personality, revealed no significant difference. Young (1973) found an improvement in children's self-image and their behavior toward others but noted that the competence of individual teachers can play a role as one worker involved in the project produced a significantly negative effect.

Summary

Research indicates that the self-concept is metadimensional. While the self-concept comprises the individual's view of himself, self-esteem is the value he places upon his success, capability, significance

and worth. Both the self-concept and the resultant level of self-esteem have a significant influence upon cognitive, academic and affective functioning. Children's self-concepts and their self-esteem levels exert an influence upon achievement, motivation and interpersonal relationships.

Children with adequate self-concepts and self-esteem face situations confidently, expecting success. They tend to be optimistic and perceive situations from a positive stance. Those children who perceive themselves negatively are likely to fail in school and have difficulty with adult and peer relationships. Negative self-concepts lead to anxiety and fear of failure and the unknown.

The foundations of an individual's self-concept are laid in infancy and become strengthened through early experiences. Psychologists unequivocally view the parent-child relationship as the most crucial component in the formation of the child's self-concept. His interactions with siblings and his particular social and physical environments also play significant roles in shaping his feelings of worth and capability. Research indicates that, although the self-concept is a relatively stable part of the personality, it can be enhanced or hampered through social and environmental relationships.

When the child enters school, the teacher assumes the role of a significant adult and her views are incorporated into his self-perceptions. Peer interactions also are important in shaping or altering the individual's view of himself. The child's perceptions of success

or failure in both academic and social situations have an effect upon achievement. Research studies consistently emphasize the importance of the self-concept upon school success, social relationships and emotional development.

According to Lewis (1968), the school is the one situation where inadequate self-concepts may be enhanced so that children are free to learn and experience positive relationships with others. Through positive interactions with the teacher and peers, the child's self-concept and his perception of worth may be facilitated.

Several planned, developmental programs have been instituted at the elementary school level. Generally, they focus on assisting the individual to understand himself and his needs such as posited by Maslow. According to Bedrosian et al (1970), developmental and preventive programs are necessary and desirable from kindergarten to maturity to "help each pupil understand himself in relation to his needs and to the demands of his environment" (Bedrosian et al, 1970, p. 125). Since research indicates that problems manifested in older children are also found in the earlier grades, early intervention appears to be important in enabling children to learn and enjoy social relationships.

The program "Developing Understanding of Self and Others" (DUSO) focuses on eight basic developmental tasks identified by teachers and psychologists. Through problem-solving experiences utilizing a variety of techniques, children are expected to become more aware of their own and others' social-emotional and achievement needs. The

DUSO program "has been designed to help the child become more aware of the relationship between his self-concept, his social relationships, and his needs, purposes, and achievements" (Dinkmeyer, 1971a, p. 14).

Although a DUSO program can be implemented by counsellors, its basic premise is the importance of the classroom teacher as a significant other in recognizing and influencing the optimal development of children's social, emotional and achievement needs. By focusing on relevant experiences, the DUSO program becomes involved with the total child's intellect, affect and behavior. The individual is able to function more effectively in the educational experience. In such a facilitating milieu, the need for crisis intervention is lessened.

Need for the Present Study

As previously cited, a significant number of research studies (Engel, 1962; Wattenberg & Clifford, 1964; Coopersmith, 1967; Denerll, 1972) have investigated both the formation of the self-concept and the effects of self-esteem upon achievement and affective functioning. Increasingly, attention is focusing upon the remediation of negative self-concepts so that children are able to function more effectively in school. Generally, current studies investigate the efficacy of group processes over traditional methods of therapy. Researchers propose that since children learn behaviors and experience feelings in group settings, they can also learn self-understanding and make affective changes in groups.

Effective procedures which have produced changes in children's self-concepts have been reported. Research findings indicate that increased group activity tends to heighten children's self-perceptions. Successful group techniques appear to fall into three categories: a) counselling children and significant adults (Maierhofer, 1971; Platt, 1971; Taylor, 1971; Palmo & Kuzniar, 1972); b) groups led by teachers (Bedrosian et al, 1970); and c) groups led by counsellors (Jasik, 1972; Retish, 1973; Brown & Macdougall, 1973). For younger children, group procedures involving playmedia (Drowne, 1971) and non-directive play therapy (Howard & Zimpfer, 1972) were found to be more efficacious than verbal techniques. All of these studies, however, involved children who were previously identified as having self-concept difficulties. The studies were led from a remedial rather than a preventive orientation.

Educators have perceived a need for preventive counselling techniques so that crisis situations become less prevalent. Kagan & Moss (1962) concluded that "the school self appears to grow gradually less positive with time" (p. 198). An effective prevention program is necessary at all school levels. The increasing interest in group techniques at the elementary school level has led to the development of formal, preventive programs. Several guidance programs (DUSO, The Magic Circle, Self-Enhancing Education) have been proposed in response to the need for some type of human development classroom program (Dinkmeyer, 1970; Bessel & Palomares, 1970; Randolph & Howe, 1966).

Institution of these programs is still at an introductory level and other researchers are experimenting with different approaches (Hawes, 1969; Bedrosian et al, 1970; Altmann & Firnesz, 1973).

The DUSO program is one of the most widely utilized guidance devices in Alberta elementary schools. It focuses on common developmental tasks of childhood (Dinkmeyer, 1973). Since the elementary school years are viewed by Dinkmeyer (1970) as being critical in self-concept development, the DUSO program's main thrust is the enhancement of children's self-concepts. Through increased understanding of the self and others, the program affects children's self-concepts so that they are "free to become involved and committed to the educational process" (Dinkmeyer, 1971b, p. 67). DUSO aims are similar to other commercial programs but it differs from them in its multisensory approach to the mastery of its eight defined problem areas.

While the DUSO program appears to have face validity, it seems that commercial development is running ahead of scientific validation of the instrument's utility and effectiveness. Limited research (Koval & Hales, 1972; Eldridge et al, 1973; Young, 1973) into the DUSO-DI for primary school children has indicated that it is effective in enhancing younger children's self-concepts. No studies have investigated the effects of the DUSO-DII on older children's self-concepts which research indicates tend to become more difficult to alter. It remains to be proven that the DUSO-DII program actually does what it purports to do.

Since research articles indicate that increased group activity

alone tends to heighten children's perceptions of themselves and others, validation of the DUSO program's claims to enhance interpersonal awareness and self-concept development must be undertaken.

The DUSO program is expensive to acquire. It is also expensive in terms of the amount of teacher or counsellor training advisable before its introduction and in the amount of teacher and class time necessarily involved in topic presentation. It appears that in terms of monetary and time expenditure, study of the DUSO program's efficacy in altering children's self-esteem is required.

Chapter III

Design and Methodology

The Problem

This study proposes to assess the effect of a particular DUSO-DII unit on children's self-concepts. The first unit of DUSO-DI, which deals specifically with developing self-awareness and self-concept, is reported by Dinkmeyer (1970) and other studies (Koval & Hales, 1972; Eldridge, Barcikowski & Witmer, 1973) to be successful in positively altering the total self-concepts of children in grades two and three. No research, to date, has been undertaken to validate the effectiveness of a similar DUSO-DII unit in altering older children's self-perceptions. Kagan and Moss (1962) report that children's self-concepts tend to become more negative as they progress in school. Since research indicates that the self-concept has significant effects upon children's achievement and social relationships, the importance of an effective developmental guidance program for older children is obvious (Williams & Cole, 1968; Jackson, 1973; Lawson, 1974). It is, therefore, mandatory that the validity of the widely-disseminated DUSO-DII program be investigated.

The dimensions selected for evaluation of self-concept enhancement are subjective and objective measures of self-esteem, a dimension of the self-concept. Because children's self-perceptions may, over time, alter positively or negatively without intervention, treatment and

and control groups will be utilized to more accurately assess any differences due to treatment. Both pre- and post-measures of self-esteem as reported by the children and behavioral manifestations of change as perceived by external raters will be assessed.

Research indicates that both counsellor and teacher intervention can produce positive changes in children's self-concepts (Bedrosian et al, 1970; Drowne, 1972; Howard & Zimpfer, 1972; Jasik, 1972; Retish, 1973, Brown & Macdougall, 1973). It is Dinkmeyer's belief that the DUSO program can be effectively implemented by the classroom teacher, a significant adult, if she has been provided with instruction in its dynamics (Dinkmeyer, 1970; 1973). This study proposes that classroom teachers who spend greater amounts of time with children than any counsellor are the necessary program innovators.

Research results indicate that the individual teacher's perceptions of children play a significant role in how students see themselves (Fleming & Anttonnen, 1971; Brown & Macdougall, 1973; Rosenthal, 1973). A secondary objective of this study is to examine the relationship between teacher beliefs about students and instructional style and its possible interaction with DUSO treatment effects.

The Sample

The subjects in this study consisted of 112 grade five students at Athabasca Elementary School, Athabasca, Alberta. Characteristics of the four classes, particularly in terms of size and the students'

socio-economic background were similar. Heterogeneous ability groupings in each class were assigned randomly by the principal. The composition of the classes, therefore, was similar. Instruction tended to be departmentalized with classes shifting to different teachers for various subject areas.

A total of 112 grade five students at Athabasca Elementary School participated in the study. Initial data analysis, a three-way analysis of variance with one factor repeated (Winer, 1971, p. 539-571), necessitated equal populations. Students' protocols in each of the four classes were randomly assigned so that each class consisted of 28 students, 14 boys and 14 girls. The experimental and control groups each comprised 56 students.

Experimental Procedure

Four grade five teachers at Athabasca Elementary School, two of whom were enrolled in the spring Educational Psychology 498 course, Techniques of Classroom Management, volunteered to participate in the study. Two teachers functioned as a control pair and student behavioral raters while those enrolled in the spring session course volunteered to utilize the DUSO-DII kit as part of their program requirements. The teachers, all of whom had at least five years classroom experience, were judged competent and effective by their principal.

The teachers participating in Educational Psychology 498 received instruction in the rationale and implementation of the DUSO program. Initially, the researcher presented a two hour lecture and de-

monstration with eight children, aged 9 to 11, to the entire Educational Psychology class. During this session, the students viewed and handled the DUSO materials, observed two lessons and questioned the researcher and children regarding the format and adult and child perceptions of the program.

Following this introduction, the two Athabasca teachers received further instruction and assistance from the researcher so that they gained confidence before presenting their initial sessions. These study-participants presented DUSO lessons twice weekly for five weeks and were observed each week by either their faculty consultant or the researcher to evaluate program presentation and provide direction. As well, the teachers kept a written evaluation of each presentation, commenting on its strengths and weaknesses. The first unit of the DUSO-DII program, "Understanding of Self" was completed.

Instrumentation

(a) Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

The Coopersmith (1967) Self-Esteem Inventory (Appendix A) was used to measure self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) defines self-esteem in the following manner:

> By self-esteem we refer to the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself. It expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval (p. 4).

Coopersmith indicates that persons who score high on self-esteem ratings are generally socially independent, creative, assertive and

capable of more vigorous social action. Those with low self-esteem tend to be introverted, unimaginative and lacking in self-confidence (1967).

Form A of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory consists of fifty items and five sub-scales which include General Self (25 items); Social Self-Peers (9 items); Home-Parents (8 items); School-Academic (8 items); Lie Scale (8 items). Construction of the inventory was based upon the Rogers and Dymond (1954) scale. Test items were selected from the Rogers and Dymond scale and reworded for use with children aged eight to twelve. As well, Coopersmith designed additional items for inclusion. Statements were divided into two groups, indicating high and low self-esteem, by agreement among five psychologists.

On the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, the subject checks each item as either "like me" or "unlike me". Twice the sum of high self-esteem items marked "like me" and low self-esteem items marked "unlike me" gives the self-esteem score (Wylie, 1961). The individual score is the total number of correct responses, excluding the Lie scale, which provides a maximum score of 50. The defensive, lie reaction totals eight items. For convenience, the total Self-Esteem Inventory score is doubled so that the maximum score is 100.

Coopersmith initially administered the final form of his Inventory to two fifth and sixth grade classes. The scores ranged from 40 to 100, with a mean of 82.3 and a standard deviation of 11.6. The mean score for the 44 boys in these classes was 81.3 and the standard

deviation was 12.2; the mean score for the 43 girls was 83.3 with a standard deviation of 16.7. The difference between the boys' and girls' mean scores was not significant ($F = .80$, $p > .50$). Coopersmith subsequently readministered the inventory to one of these classes which consisted of thirty children. Test re-test reliability after a five week interval was reported as .88 (Coopersmith, 1959).

The inventory was administered to a total of 1,748 children attending the public schools of central Connecticut. In this more diverse population, the mean for males was 70.1 with a standard deviation of 13.8. This was not significantly different from the female mean of 72.2 and a standard deviation of 12.8. As in the initial sample, score distribution was skewed toward high self-esteem. Test re-test reliability after a three year interval utilizing 56 children from this population, was .70 (Coopersmith, 1959).

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory has been employed in numerous research studies (Morse, 1964; Richmond & White, 1971; Battle, 1972; Higgins, 1972; Sallade, 1972; Trowbridge, Trowbridge & Trowbridge, 1972; Williams, 1972; Wood & Johnson, 1972; Altmann & Firnesz, 1973; Crowley, 1973; Frost, 1973; Schulman, Ford & Busk, 1973; Primavera, Simon & Primavera, 1974; Amundson, 1975; Fryrear, 1975; Gumaer & Voorneveld, 1975). It has been selected for this current study because of its wide use and because of the body of normative data available. The literature supports the view that the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory is an effective and workable measure

of a child's total self-concept.

(b) Behavior Rating Form

Coopersmith's Behavior Rating Form (Appendix B) was used as an external behavioral evaluation of changes in self-esteem. The Behavior Rating Form was designed by Coopersmith (1959) to provide an objective rating of the behavioral expression of self-esteem.

There are two parts to the thirteen items of the Behavior Rating Form. The first ten items provide an appraisal of behaviors that are associated with poise, assurance and self-trust. Assessed behaviors include reactions to new situations, criticism, failure, self-depreciation, and hesitation to express opinions publicly. The second part, consisting of three items, provides an index of behaviors which are frequently defensive in nature, including bragging, bullying and attention-seeking.

Each behavior is rated on a five point scale. The rating indicative of high self-esteem behavior or defensive behavior has a varied position from right to left, always to never, to minimize a superficial response bias. Part I of the Behavior Rating Form has a maximum total score of 50 which is multiplied by two to provide a convenient base of 100. Part II, indicating Defensive Behavior, has a maximum total of 15. Scores above 10 are viewed as particularly important in signifying defensiveness (Coopersmith, 1967).

In developing this form, Coopersmith selected behaviors worth rating after observing children's behavior in and out of the classroom, repeatedly interviewing teachers, principals and a clinical psychologist

as well as evaluating and discussing findings with his research committee. On theoretical and empirical grounds, the behaviors were assumed to be an external manifestation of the child's prevailing self-appraisal (Coopersmith, 1967).

The Behavior Rating Form was used in Coopersmith's Connecticut study of 1,748 children to establish its feasibility. In the initial rating study, classroom teachers and principals rated children's behaviors independently. The correlation between these ratings was .73. In subsequent samples (Coopersmith, 1959), the teachers' ratings ranged from 23 - 100, with a mean of 68.4 and a standard deviation of 15.4. The mean of the boys' ratings was 65.0 with a standard deviation of 13.6. The girls' mean was significantly higher than the boys' ($F = 4.2$; $p < .001$). The test re-test reliability of the ratings by one teacher after an eight week interval was .96.

Summary of Discrepancies Between Self-Rating and Behavioral Rating

Coopersmith (1959) found that instances of marked discrepancy between subjective and behavioral evaluation were relatively rare. In his initial sample of 87 subjects and subsequent samples of 74 and 102 children, extreme divergence occurred in less than 10 per cent of the cases. Defining substantial disagreement as a difference of more than 20 points in either direction between the reported self-esteem and the observer's behavioral rating, Coopersmith (1959), found a difference of this magnitude in only 8 of the original 87 cases. Distributions

for other samples showed similar results. The two ratings used in conjunction appear to present satisfactory assessments of internal, objective and observable total self-concepts.

(c) Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs

Because of the previously cited importance of a teacher's attitude toward students and the learning process, the Wehling and Charters (1969) Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs (Appendix C) was completed by the four grade five teachers involved in this study to ascertain whether their belief systems varied significantly and could affect treatment results.

Consisting of 86 questions, the instrument assesses eight dimensions of teacher beliefs about the teaching process: Subject-Matter Emphasis; Personal Adjustment Ideology; Student Autonomy vs Teacher Direction; Emotional Disengagement; Consideration of Student Viewpoint; Classroom Order; Student Challenge; Integrative Learning. The respondents endorse one of five alternatives for each item, from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Responses on the Wehling and Charters questionnaire, administered between 1962 and 1965 to 996 teachers, were categorized into eight distinct and relatively independent attitude factors through factor analysis. The study described these dimensions in terms of teachers who scored "high" in them. The reliabilities of these factors have been considered adequate by previous researchers (Wehling and Charters, 1969; Janzen, Beeken and Hritzuk, 1973).

"Subject-Matter Emphasis" represents the teacher's belief that the content of a course has value in and of itself. "Personal Adjustment Ideology" is the belief that instruction should be organized around student interests and needs so that social and emotional development is enhanced. "Student Autonomy vs Teacher Control" represents the teacher's perception of the locus of classroom control as lying with either himself or the students, a bipolar factor. "Emotional Disengagement" is the emotional distance which a teacher perceives necessary to prevent over-involvement with students' individual problems and concerns. "Consideration of Student Viewpoint" represents teacher acceptance of empathy as an instructional strategy. "Classroom Order" expresses the teacher's belief that the class must be conducted according to established rules and procedures with quick punishment for those who deviate. "Student Challenge" represents a teacher's perception of the learning situation as a cognitive challenge with the gap between accomplishment and goal characterized by tension. "Integrative Learning" involves teacher belief in the necessity for students to see relationships between taught material and the outer world. It reflects a conception of learning as the acquisition of meanings and not factual knowledge only (Wehling and Charters, 1969, p. 13-15).

Wehling and Charters, in formulating their Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs, emphasized cognitive aspects of teacher attitudes only and did not attempt to evaluate teacher effectiveness according to scores on their Dimension. Their study indicates that conceptual systems are

complex organizations of beliefs, consisting of several discrete sets of inter-related concepts. The relationship between belief organization and teaching behavior, however, was speculative on this study.

In further research, Janzen et al (1973) administered the Wehling and Charters' questionnaire and Rotter's I-E Scale to 80 teachers attending an advanced educational psychology course. They found significant relationshipsbetween several of Wehling and Charters' dimensions in their attempt to classify teachers into "internals" who believe that self-originated activity can be useful and are willing to attempt to control their environments, and "externals", who feel relatively powerless to control their destinies and exhibit less achievement-oriented, striving behavior (Janzen et al, 1973, p. 49). This research, however, discarded traditional notions of internality and externality, finding that the former characterized teachers who desired to control their environments whereas the latter was typical of those who were more aware of and alert to unexpected environmental contingencies.

The current study seeks only to correlate the belief systems of four specific teachers. It is, therefore, not concerned with demonstrating either internal or external locus of control of teacher behaviors. The Wehling and Charters' questionnaire appeared appropriate for demonstrating similarity or dissimilarity of belief systems along the eight previously described dimensions. It was felt that if the teachers' belief system about students, subject-matter, classroom control, emotional involvement and student challenge were similar, there would

be a greater chance that the DUSO program was effective in changing children's self-perceptions.

In summary, this study will investigate the effects of the DUSO-DII unit, "Understanding the Self", upon children's self-concepts. This particular unit purports to exert a positive effect upon children's self-concepts. The dimension focused upon is self-esteem which Coopersmith (1967) indicates is the most important aspect of the total self-concept.

For the purposes of this study, pre- and post-measures of subjective and objective self-esteem were administered to 112 children in grade five at Athabasca Elementary School, Athabasca, Alberta. Fifty-six children, taught by two teachers enrolled in a spring Educational Psychology 498 course, participated in the DUSO program. The remaining fifty-six children functioned as a control group. The two grade five teachers who were not enrolled in course work functioned as external evaluators of objective self-esteem.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) was utilized to assess the children's subjective total self-esteem. This instrument consists of fifty items and five scales which produce a total self-esteem rating. These scales include:

General Self
Social Self-peers
Home - parents
School - academic
Lie

The Coopersmith Behavior Rating Form (1967) was used to assess

the children's objective self-esteem. It includes thirteen items which assess positive behaviors associated with poise, assurance and self-trust and defensive behaviors including bragging, bullying and attention seeking.

The Wehling and Charters Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs (1969) was used to assess the four grade five teachers' attitudes toward the teaching process. This questionnaire consists of eight scales:

Subject-matter Emphasis
Personal Adjustment Ideology
Student Autonomy vs Teacher-Direction
Emotional Disengagement
Consideration of Student Viewpoint
Classroom Order
Student Challenge
Integrative Learning

Collection of the Data

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) was administered to each grade five class in the sample as pre- and post-measures by the researcher. The Inventory was read orally to all the students to ensure adequate understanding of the questions and the response procedure.

The Behavior Rating Form (1967) was completed as pre- and post-measures for all students by the two grade five teachers who were not involved with the DUSO-DII program.

Both the SEI and BRF were administered during the first week of May, 1975 before DUSO-DII instruction commenced. Re-administration occurred seven weeks later, in June, 1975, following completion

of the DUSO-DII unit, "Understanding the Self."

Wehling and Charters' Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs (1969) was completed by each of the grade five teachers at Athabasca Elementary School to determine relationships in the teachers' beliefs about the teaching process, classroom management and student involvement.

Hypotheses

The review of the literature resulted in the following hypotheses which are formulated in the null form indicating that no difference exists between population means.

H_1: There is no significant difference in adjusted mean scores on the Self-Esteem Inventory between experimental and control groups on the post-test.

H_2: There is no significant difference in mean scores on either the Self-Esteem Inventory or the Behavior Rating Form within and between experimental and control subjects on pre- and post-test measures.

Analysis of the Data

All data collected pertaining to both students and teachers was processed at the Faculty of Education Computing Centre. Individual scores were employed in the data analysis so that a maximum amount of information could be obtained. The population distribution was assumed to be normal (Hays, 1963, p. 352).

For both the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating

Form, F-tests were used to compute the significance of pre-test means between experimental and control groups. For the Self-Esteem Inventory, an analysis of variance controlling for variance between the pre-test means of the experimental and control groups was utilized. An analysis of covariance, controlling for variance between the means of the two groups during post-testing, was then employed for the Self-Esteem Inventory. For both the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form, a three-way analysis of variance with one factor repeated (Winer, 1971, p. 539-571) was employed to compute the significance of the DUSO-DII effects for Time, Treatment and Sex. A two-way Anova (Winer, 1971, p. 302) was used to test for Time and Treatment effects within and between experimental and control subjects on both instruments.

Pearson product-moment correlations among teacher scores on the Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs were computed to ascertain whether any significant correlations existed among instructor belief patterns which could affect program results.

Chapter IV

Results

Introduction

A total of 112 grade five students and four teachers at Athabasca Elementary School participated in the study. This chapter presents the results of the study.

Preliminary Findings

The results of the three-way analysis of variance indicated that the sex factor had no significant effect on students' results on either the Self-Esteem Inventory or the Behavior Rating Form. These results are contained in Appendix D. The data analysis, collapsed by sex, therefore focused upon Time x Group factors utilizing a two-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures.

Tests to differentiate between the experimental and control groups' pre-test means on the Self-Esteem Inventory were performed. Because these analyses (Appendix E, Table I) indicated that the experimental and control groups' pre-test means were unequal, analysis of variance employing adjusted means was used to control for unequal variances between experimental and control pre-test means on the Self-Esteem Inventory. These results are reported in Appendix E, Table II.

Differences in mean scores on the Behavior Rating Form between experimental and control groups on the pre-test were computed. A summary of the results is contained in Appendix E, Table III. In-

spection of Table III indicated that the experimental and control groups did not differ significantly on their Behavior Rating Form results on the pre-test situation (F 1.19, $p > 0.52$).

To test for the uniformity of the four teachers' responses on the eight Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs inventory, a Pearson product-moment correlation of the similarity of teacher beliefs and attitudes was computed. The results are presented in Appendix E, Table IV. It is evident, in looking at the magnitude of correlations among the eight dimensions, that the teachers in the experimental and control groups did not differ significantly on any of the teacher belief system variables. It might be inferred that, because the teachers' attitudes and belief systems did not vary significantly, their perceptions could have had only a slight effect upon program results. The significant and uniformly high correlations among the teachers' beliefs indicated similarity of their attitudes on the eight dimensions of the teacher belief systems.

Findings of the Study

Hypothesis I stated that there is no significant difference in adjusted mean scores on the Self-Esteem Inventory between experimental and control groups on the post-test. An analysis of covariance controlling for variance between the means of the two groups during post-testing was performed. The results from testing this Hypothesis are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

Analysis of Covariance of Self-Esteem Scores on Post-test Employing Adjusted Means

Source	df	M.S.	Adjusted F
Between groups	1	1593.98	35.99 *
Within groups	109	44.28	

$p < .001$

As is evident, the difference between the adjusted post-test means of the experimental and control groups on the Self-Esteeem Inventory was significant ($F = 35.99$, $p < 0.001$). Hypothesis I was rejected. The experimental group's score changed significantly more between pre- and post-testing than did the control group's score.

Means and Adjusted Means for the experimental and control groups obtained on the Self-Esteem Inventory are presented in the following table.

Table 2

Means and Adjusted Means of Self-Esteem Scores for the Two Groups Employed in the Study

Groups	Pre-test Means	Post-test Means	Adjusted Means
Experimental	59.96	67.64	70.35
Control	65.60	65.39	62.68

As can be seen, the experimental group made substantial gains between pre- and post-testing sessions while the control group's means scores remained relatively stable.

Means on both the pre- and post-test administration of the Behavior Rating Form are presented in the following table.

Table 3

Means of Behavior Scores for the Two Groups Employed in the Study

Groups	Pre-test Means	Post-test Means
Experimental	67.89	71.64
Control	65.50	64.46

As is evident, the experimental group made gains between pre- and post-test administration while the control group's mean scores remained relatively stable.

Since the results of the analysis of covariance indicated that the experimental group's Self-Esteem score changed significantly as a result of the treatment program, it appeared necessary to analyze the change in greater detail. An analysis of Time x Groups with unadjusted means was performed to investigate changes on the scores of both the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form.

Hypothesis II stated that there is no significant difference in mean scores on either the Self-Esteem Inventory or the Behavior Rating Form within and between experimental and control subjects on pre- and post-measures. Summaries of these statistical analyses are presented

in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Time - on

Dimensions of Self-Esteem

Source	df	M. S.	F
Between	111		
Groups	1	162.96	0.338
Error	110	482.16	
Within	112		
Time	1	781.81	35.33 *
Groups x Time	1	869.97	39.32 *
Error	110	22.13	

* $p < .001$

Inspection of Table 4 found no significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the dimensions of Self-Esteem. Significant differences, however, were found within the experimental group's pre- and post-test means on the Self-Esteem Inventory. Table 4 indicated that the Time effect and the Groups x Time interaction effect were both statistically significant (F = 35.33,

$p < .001$, $F = 39.32$, $p < .001$). Consequently, the applied treatment resulted in significant changes within the experimental group's self-esteem scores over the treatment period.

Table 5

Analysis of Variance - Groups x Time - on Dimensions of Behavior

Source	df	M.S.	F
Between	111		
Groups	1	1284.93	4.88 *[1]
Error	110	263.14	
Within	112		
Time	1	105.43	8.45 *[2]
Groups x Time	1	318.06	25.49 *[3]
Error	110	12.47	

*[1] $p < .05$

*[2] $p < .004$

*[3] $p < .001$

Table 5 revealed significant differences between experimental and control groups on the Behavior Rating Form mean scores ($F = 4.88$,

$p < .05$). Also, significant differences were found within the experimental group's pre- and post-test means on the Time effect and the Groups x Time interaction effect ($F = 8.45$ $p < .004$, $F = 25.45$ $p < .001$). Consequently, the treatment effect showed significant changes upon the experimental group's Behavior Rating Form scores. Table 5 provides statistical data similar to Table 4 but, this time, the analysis involved the Behavior Rating Form pre- and post-test means. As can be seen, not only were there significant differences between experimental and control groups on this measure ($F = 4.88$, $p < .05$), but also significant differences were found within the experimental group's pre- and post-test means. Statistical significance was reached on both the Time effect and the Groups x Time interaction effect ($F = 8.45$ $p < .004$, $F = 25.49$ $p < .001$). These significant F-values indicate that the treatment effect significantly changed the experimental group's Behavior Rating Form scores. An analysis of the adjusted means for the Self-Esteem Inventory scores (Table 2) and the group means of the Behavior Rating Form scores (Table 3) clearly indicated that the within group variance was accounted for primarily by the effect of the significant difference between the pre- and post-test means of the experimental group.

In summary, on both the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form results, the within group effect (Time) was highly significant. In addition, the interaction effect (Groups x Time) on both the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form was highly signi-

ficant. Therefore, Hypothesis II was rejected.

Summary

This study investigated the effects of the DUSO-DII Unit "Understanding of Self" on students' self-esteem. Both internal and behavioral manifestations of self-esteem were investigated. The study also focused upon the Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs to ascertain teacher influence upon program implementation. Analyses were undertaken to test the two hypotheses proposed in the study.

Students in the experimental and control groups were found to differ significantly in their perceptions of self-esteem on pre-test measures. The teachers, however, did not perceive the students as differing significantly, as far as behavioral manifestations were concerned, on the pre-test measures. When an analysis of variance was employed to analyze Self-Esteem Inventory pre-test results, the experimental group's pre-test means were significantly related to those of the control group.

Significant post-test gains in the experimental group's results on the Self-Esteem Inventory were confirmed by both the analysis of covariance and the two-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures. Significant results, favoring the experimental group, were found in overt manifestations of self-esteem as assessed with the Behavior Rating Form between pre- and post-test assessments.

The significant correlations among the four instructor's belief

systems indicated a uniformity of attitudes and ideas about students, themselves as individuals, and the teaching process.

Findings in this study revealed that the experimental group experienced significant changes in internal and external manifestations of self-esteem as assessed through pre- and post-measures of the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form. These alterations appeared to be due to the DUSO-DII program undertaken over a treatment period. The significant correlation among the four teachers' belief systems indicated a similarity of teaching styles and attitudes toward children and the learning process.

Chapter V

Summary, Discussion and Implications

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of the DUSO-DII Unit "Understanding of Self" on internal and external perceptions of self-esteem in grade five students. A subsidiary purpose was to investigate whether teacher beliefs had any significant effect upon the implementation of this developmental guidance program.

It was hypothesized that the experimental group in the study, when compared with the control group, would not achieve gains in either individual or teacher-perceived self-esteem. Also analyzed were the correlations among the teachers' belief and attitude dimensions.

Analysis of covariance of Self-Esteem Inventory results on the pre-test indicated significant differences between experimental and control groups on the pre-test means. An analysis of covariance with the post-test means, with adjusted pre-test scores, indicated that the experimental group's scores changed significantly ($p < .001$) whereas the control group's scores did not. A two-way analysis of variance was utilized to measure changes of internal and external ratings of self-esteem. Results favored the experimental group which achieved significant gains, assessed by the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form.

Significant results were found in comparing the experimental and

control groups' teachers' attitude and belief systems regarding the instructional process, student involvement and responsibility, as well as their own involvement in the learning situation. The teachers evidenced a highly significant, consistent pattern of beliefs and attitudes.

Discussion and Implications for Further Research

Although the experimental and control groups were assumed to be derived from the same general population, two problems in sampling became apparent through data analysis with the Self-Esteem Inventory results. These difficulties included the lack of homogeneity of variance and the disparity between the experimental and control groups' pre-test means. These problems were evidenced in the Self-Esteem Inventory results but not in the Behavior Rating Form results.

The two problems appear related to initial assignment of the classes to experimental and control groups. All four classes were perceived by their teachers as having a comparable number of high, medium and low self-esteem children. The difficulties which arose may have been due, in part, to teacher misunderstanding of the terms "self-esteem" and "self-concept."

Although this study's experimental and control classes were viewed, overall, as comparable in self-esteem by their teachers, their motivation to perform on a test, especially one revealing thoughts about themselves, their homes and peer relationships, may have differed. The type of bias evidenced in these students' self-perceptions often

occurs when subjects have been formed into groups for reasons other than an experimental study.

Often, individual perceptions are not apparent to the teacher who is accustomed to viewing the students as a total group. Test results obtained in this study indicate that individual responses assume great significance because of the variance in respondents' scores.

An examination of individual scores on the Self-Esteem Inventory pre-test indicates a significant amount of variance among the experimental group's responses whereas the control group, by comparison, tended to be more homogeneous in its responses. The experimental group, on the pre-test, had a greater proportion of low-esteem students than did the control group, despite the fact that classes were randomly assigned to treatment by agreement among the teachers and the researcher.

The significantly different Self-Esteem Inventory pre-test means between experimental and control groups indicates that, although the classes were viewed as comparatively equal by the teachers and randomly assigned to treatment, the experimental classes saw themselves as significantly less capable and worthy than did the control classes. Because pre-test means on the Behavior Rating Form were comparable, it is evident that the teachers viewed the experimental classes differently from how these children perceived themselves. Although the teachers rated overt manifestations of students' feelings of self-worth, their assessment was not consistent with how the experi-

mental group members actually felt about themselves. This factor underlines the importance of research which has demonstrated that the most important factor in self-concept ratings is the child's own perceptions.

Generally, teachers tend to perceive children's self-esteem as a factor which is affected by marks, absenteeism, ability and classroom behavior (Purkey, 1970; Dinkmeyer, 1971b; Aspy & Roebuck, 1974; Levine, 1974; Loney, 1974). The Behavior Rating Form assesses behaviors within an achievement setting. This test, then, focuses upon a specific dimension of children's self-esteem which is related to the school-self only.

The Self-Esteem Inventory is a more complex instrument than the Behavior Rating Form because it consists of the child's perceptions of himself at home, with peers, with his teacher and as an achieving person at school. It is a multidimensional, complex approach to the individual, based upon his own subjective affective evaluations.

The Behavior Rating Form and the Self-Esteem Inventory appear to assess two discrete entities. The individual's self-perceptions tend to be phenomenologically-based whereas the teacher's perceptions tend to be performance and activity-based. The Behavior Rating Form consists of 13 items in contrast with the Self-Esteem Inventory which consists of 58 self-reflective items. On the basis of measurement, one is inclined to accept the latter test as a truer measure of one's total self-esteem. However, it must be kept in mind that what is important

in the classroom is the child's actual behavior pattern because this influences the teacher's perception and reactions toward him. Both tests, the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form, indicated significant changes in the experimental group's self-esteem. Even though these instruments appear to be measuring different dimensions, the changes in mean scores within this study are indicative of response to treatment procedures.

The study's results support Dinkmeyer's belief that participation in the DUSO program will exert positive effects on children's self-perceptions (Dinkmeyer, 1970; 1971a; 1971b; 1973). It is significant that the experimental group experienced significant, positive changes on both internal and external measures of self-esteem. The Behavior measure is of particular importance because the teacher is viewed as a significant other (Purkey, 1970; Dinkmeyer, 1968). In this study, external raters not involved with the program's implementation perceived significant alterations in behavior. Therefore, both the children's and external raters' opinions reflected changes in self-esteem.

Research cited previously indicated that the teacher has a significant influence on how children perceive themselves and others (Davidson & Lang, 1960; Brookover et al, 1964; Fleming & Anttonen, 1971; Brown & Macdougall, 1973; Rosenthal, 1973; Jones, 1974). This study's results indicate that the co-operating instructors did not vary significantly in their views of children and the teaching process as measured by Wehling and Charters (1969) scale. The teachers' percep-

tions of the experimental group's self-esteem was not, however, consistent with how the children viewed themselves. What is important is that external raters perceived changes in the children's behavior. Because of behavior alterations, it is likely that the classes and particular children within them would be perceived more positively. As a result, the children who had difficulties would find themselves experiencing more positive peer and teacher interactions.

Of importance is the similarity of teacher beliefs. Since the teachers' responses on the Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs indicated a significant degree of congruence, changes in the children's Self-Esteem scores might be assumed to be largely due to program implementation. The four teachers' beliefs on factors of student autonomy, integrative learnings, personal adjustment, student challenge, consideration of student viewpoint, classroom order, subject matter emphasis and emotional disengagement evidenced a significant degree of similarity. Because of the correlation among the teachers' responses, it appears that teacher attitude and classroom style had little effect upon evidenced alterations in self-esteem.

The results reported in Chapter IV give encouraging support to Dinkmeyer's contention that children of all ages are reachable and react positively when an affective educational program is provided (Dinkmeyer, 1968; 1971a). In this study, the DUSO program appeared to significantly affect children's total self-esteem. The results are consistent with those obtained with younger, primary grade children in earlier studies

(Koval & Hales, 1972; Cleminshaw, 1973; Eldridge et al, 1973) which reported significant differences in participants' self-concepts following involvement in the DUSO program. Through utilizing the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form, devices designed specifically to assess self-esteem, significant changes in grade five children's individual and teacher-perceptions of self-concepts resulted. These results confirm the findings of previous studies with other instruments. Therefore, several different assessment devices, including the California Test of Personality, the DUSO Affectivity Device, the Self-Esteem Inventory and Behavior Rating Form, all indicate positive changes in children's feelings of self-worth and competence through the implementation of the DUSO program.

The results of this study confirm the views of Coopersmith (1967) and Purkey (1970) who perceive the self-concept as a changeable entity, open to revision. A school-sponsored program can alter children's self-perceptions. The importance of this finding is underlined by research (Lecky, 1945; Brookover et al, 1964; Williams & Cole, 1968; Hamachek, 1973; Cole, 1974; Primavera et al, 1974) which illustrates the importance of the self-concept in children's academic performance. The educational system appears to have a vested interest in promoting more positive self-perceptions, not only to enable optimal achievement and learning in the present but, also, to provide happier adults in the future. Therefore, an effective program is of benefit to children and, eventually, society as a whole.

Research indicates that many counsellors currently work with teacher-identified children, focusing upon remediation of existing behavioral and emotional problems (Sallade, 1972; Altmann & Firnesz, 1973; Martin, 1973; Gumaer & Voorneveld, 1975). Since time constraints obviate very few children's concerns being assisted with this method, the need for effective programs based upon common developmental problems is apparent. Research studies indicate that positive behavioral changes occur when significant adults, teachers or parents, are involved in the group process (Maierhofer, 1971; Platt, 1971; Taylor, 1971; Palmo & Kuzniar, 1972). This study's results confirm Dinkmeyer's (1971b) and other researchers' opinions that teachers can undertake an effective program when provided with counsellor assistance (Jasik, 1972; Retish, 1973; Brown & Macdougall, 1973). Teachers, as significant adults having the primary responsibility and immediate contact with children, appear to be the necessary agents to undertake a developmental program.

In this study, the teachers who worked with the experimental groups reacted positively to the DUSO format and its method of presentation. The only hesitations expressed by one co-operating teacher involved using DUSO during art periods and some uneasiness due to unfamiliarity with the teaching materials. She felt, however, that she would be more confident with the program in the future and planned to use it.

Some illustrative comments reflect the teachers' and their

classes' feelings regarding lessons in the program.

> Kids very enthused. I think they got the idea of accepting onself for what one is.
>
> Discussion was open and honest ... the class came up with good ideas.
>
> They got so involved with DUSO they had forgotten their art.
>
> The class really enjoyed trying to do an action the same as another person. They came to the conclusion that it was impossible.
>
> Art is not the place to teach it but a home-room teacher or social studies or health would be ideal. The kids love it.
>
> The teacher must be well prepared and well read on the lessons.
>
> I would recommend DUSO at any grade level. It's great!

The teachers' comments on the program and their evaluations of it illustrate children's willingness to discuss feelings and move toward self- and other-acceptance when provided with interesting, relevant, instructional material. However, the program would not be very effective without a co-operative person who will listen and extend herself openly.

It is the researcher's opinion, from this study, that teachers appreciate demonstration lessons and guidance in implementing the DUSO program. Affective education is not a new concept but experimentation with the novel approach in the DUSO program and the risk of exposing oneself emotionally can be rather frightening for a teacher who

has been trained only in presenting cognitive lessons and maintaining "good" discipline. Once teachers have seen how readily and enthusiastically children respond to the DUSO program, they become excited about using it with their own classes.

In implementing the DUSO program, the function of the counsellor is seen in terms of in-service teacher training and consultation. The counsellor is able to extend his services on a much broader base than has been the case in the past. Teachers as well as students benefit from this type of program implementation. A further advantage of applying the program in this manner is that some aspects of the counselling process are moved from the counsellor's office to the actual classroom situation. This not only facilitates greater personal development for more children but also avoids some of the negative labelling effects which may ensue as a result of visiting the counsellor.

It appears that the DUSO program would be a welcome addition to the school curriculum, most likely in the language arts, social studies or health areas. The materials appear relevant to children's daily experiences and the format is easily understood. The program emphasizes the teacher as a co-operative group member as well as a facilitator. The latter is an important point because not only do the children understand themselves and others better but the teacher views the children as individuals with differing needs and problems which can impinge upon the learning process.

The importance of a continuing guidance program at the upper

elementary grades is underlined by Kagan's and Moss' (1962) finding that children's academic self-concepts become less positive as they progress in school. A program which can assist an optimal number of children to view themselves and others positively, develop academic and social independence and accept responsibility for goals, choices and actions is obviously of value in fostering mental health. This is especially true when the developmental program is contrasted with the clinical, remedial model of psychological services offered by some school boards which reach only a few, crisis cases.

Finally, a word of caution is suggested. Program developers and implementers tend to view developmental guidance programs as a remedy for all that is wrong with our current educational system. It is, however, only one aspect of the total system. Any changes in the fundamental process involves other areas as well. It is imperative that parent involvement, teacher education and administrative influences also be considered.

Four potential areas of related research are seen as important:

1. The effectiveness of the DUSO program in self-concept development should be evaluated across the entire elementary school grades. This would determine whether the program is more effective with a particular age of student than with others and enable strategic placement of materials.

2. Self-concept development as affected by the DUSO program could be compared with that produced by other developmental programs

which stress similar facets of personality change. These programs include Self Enhancing Education (Randolph & Howe, 1966), Magic Circle (Bessell & Palomares, 1970), Focus (Anderson & Henner, 1972) and TAC (Amundson, 1975). This type of research would enable school boards to choose the program which facilitates optimal self-concept development and best meets the needs of their students and teachers.

3. This study's population consisted of students in a particular rural setting. It is Dinkmeyer's opinion (1970, 1973) that all children have common, developmental problems. A worthwhile study would entail an urban population to ascertain whether the DUSO program's effectiveness was apparent with the more diverse population found in city schools with students of varying socioeconomic backgrounds.

4. In this study, the DUSO program was conducted for only five weeks with lessons presented twice each week. It would be valuable to identify changes in children's self-concepts as well as peer relationships, locus of control and decision-making over a longer period of time. Through this type of research, particular strengths of the DUSO program might be identified.

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APPENDIX A

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

Please mark each statement in the following way:

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "LIKE ME".

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "UNLIKE ME."

There are no right or wrong answers.

		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1.	I spend a lot of time daydreaming.		X
2.	I'm pretty sure of myself.	X	
3.	I often wish I were someone else.		X
4.	I'm easy to like.	X	
5.	My parents and I have a lot of fun together.	X	
(LIE ITEM)			
6.	I never worry about anything.		X
7.	I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.		X
8.	I wish I were younger.		X
9.	There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.		X
10.	I can make up my mind without too much trouble.	X	
11.	I'm a lot of fun to be with.	X	
12.	I get upset easily at home.		X
(LIE ITEM)			
13.	I always do the right thing.		X
14.	I'm proud of my school work.	X	

		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
15.	Someone always has to tell me what to do.		X
16.	It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		X
17.	I'm often sorry for the things I do.		X
18.	I'm popular with kids my own age.	X	
19.	My parents usually consider my feelings.	X	
(LIE ITEM) 20.	I'm never unhappy.		X
21.	I'm doing the best work that I can.	X	
22.	I give in very easily.		X
23.	I can usually take care of myself.	X	
24.	I'm pretty happy.	X	
25.	I would rather play with children younger than me.		X
26.	My parents expect too much of me.		X
(LIE ITEM) 27.	I like everyone I know.		X
28.	I like to be called on in class.	X	
29.	I understand myself.	X	
30.	It's pretty tough to be me.		X
31.	Things are all mixed up in my life.		X
32.	Kids usually follow my ideas.	X	
33.	No one pays much attention to me at home.		X

		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
(LIE ITEM)			
34.	I never get scolded.		X
35.	I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.		X
36.	I can make up my mind and stick to it.	X	
37.	I really don't like being a boy - girl.		X
38.	I have a low opinion of myself.		X
39.	I don't like to be with other people.		X
40.	There are many times when I'd like to leave home.		X
(LIE ITEM)			
41.	I'm never shy.		X
42.	I often feel upset in school.		X
43.	I often feel ashamed of myself.		X
44.	I'm not as nice looking as most people.		X
45.	If I have something to say, I usually say it.	X	
46.	Kids pick on me very often.		X
47.	My parents understand me.	X	
(LIE ITEM)			
48.	I always tell the truth.		X
49.	My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.		X
50.	I don't care what happens to me.		X
51.	I'm a failure.		X

		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
52.	I get upset easily when I'm scolded.		X
53.	Most people are better liked than I am.		X
54.	I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.		X
(LIE ITEM) 55.	I always know what to say to people.		X
56.	Things usually don't bother me.	X	
58.	I can't be depended on.		X

Two Scores: Self Esteem (50 items)

Lie Defensive Scale (8 items)

APPENDIX B

BEHAVIOR RATING FORM

1. Does this child adopt easily to new situations, feel comfortable in new settings, enter easily into new activities?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never.

2. Does this child hesitate to express his opinions, as evidenced by extreme caution, failure to contribute, or a subdued manner in speaking situations?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never

3. Does this child become upset by failures or other strong stresses as evidenced by such behaviors as pouting, whining, or withdrawing?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never

4. How often is this child chosen for activities by his classmates? Is his companionship sought for and valued?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

   ..... seldom ..... never

5. Does this child become alarmed or frightened easily? Does he become very restless or jittery when procedures are changed, exams are scheduled or strange individuals are in the room?

   ..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

6. Does this child seek much support and reassurance from his peers or the teacher, as evidenced by seeking their nearness or frequent inquiries as to whether he is doing well?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

7. When this child is scolded or criticized, does he become either very aggressive or very sullen and submissive?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

8. Does this child deprecate his school work, grades, activities, and work products? Does he indicate he is not doing well as expected?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

9. Does this child show confidence and assurance in his actions toward his teachers and classmates?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

10. To what extent does this child show a sense of self-esteem, self-respect, and appreciation of his own worthiness?

..... very strong ..... strong ..... medium

..... mild ..... weak

11. Does this child publicly brag or boast about his exploits?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

12. Does this child attempt to dominate or bully other children?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

13. Does this child continually seek attention, as evidenced by such behaviors as speaking out of turn and making unnecessary noises?

..... always ..... usually ..... sometimes

..... seldom ..... never

Two Scores: Esteem Behavior (1-10)
Defensive Behavior (11-13)
Maximum 50/15

APPENDIX C

DIMENSIONS OF TEACHER BELIEFS

Directions

Read the statements below and mark in the appropriate category right hand column.

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
1.	Teaching of specific skills and factual subject matter is the most important function of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	The curriculum consists of subject matter to be learned and skills to be acquired.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The backbone of the school curriculum is subject matter; activities are useful mainly to facilitate the leaning of subject matter.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Pupil failure is averted when mastery of subject matter is the prime requisite for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The over-all plan of education suffers when teachers depart substantially from the subject outline.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Grading pupils separately on achievement and citizenship assures that teachers will insist on mastery of subject matter as well as good behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Before pupils are encouraged to exercise independent thought they should be thoroughly grounded in the facts and knowledge about the subject.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Learning is essentially a process of increasing one's store of information about various fields of knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	The structure of a field of knowledge is intrinsically interesting to pupils when it is clearly taught.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
10.	In teaching it is quite essential to cover the material in the course of study.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	The main reason for the curriculum guide is to provide the teacher with definite information regarding the material to be covered in the course.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	The essential function of junior high school courses lies in their preparing pupils for later courses.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Pupils learn library skills more readily by using their own devices in searching for materials of special interest than by a series of exercises designed to teach the logical steps in library procedure.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	The teacher assures optimum learning conditions by giving top priority to the social-emotional needs of pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	The development of social and emotional security for pupils is the most important function of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	The individuality of pupils is sustained when teachers make allowances in their grade reports for the varying interests pupils have.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Pupils gain a sense of belonging when the teacher encourages friendships among pupils in the room.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Teachers increase their chances of directing the work into productive channels by having pupils participate in the planning.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Group activity teachers children to think and plan together, independent					

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
	of direct supervision by the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	The goals of education should be dictated by children's interests and needs as well as by the larger demands of society.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	The attitudes learned by a student are often the most important result of a lesson or unit.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Small group work uses to best advantage the contrasting personalities, skills, and interests pupils have.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Teachers who like pupils will usually encourage pupil initiation and participation in planning lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	The effectiveness of the teacher depends entirely on the amount of personal interest he can invest in the progress of each pupil.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Pupils master the essentials of a subject only when extensive plans are made for accommodating individual differences in pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	A teacher can frequently "reach" a rebellious pupil by taking an intense personal interest in his welfare.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Nothing stimulates a pupil to apply himself more diligently than a warm, personal interest in his progress shown by the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Teachers who do not like pupils will usually decide on and plan lessons alone rather than use pupil participation.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
29.	There is too great an emphasis on keeping order in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Children should be given more freedom in the classroom than they usually get.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	A properly motivated group of mature students might learn more in a semester's time if they were left entirely to their own resources than if they had a teacher to guide them.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Pupils frequently learn much more under their own initiative than they do under teacher direction.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Across-the-school routine imposes a consistency in classroom procedure which tends to restrict important avenues for learning.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Pupils are motivated to do better work when they feel free to move around the room while the class is in session.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Nothing captures students' interest in school work as quickly as allowing them to wrestle with problems of their own choosing.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	When given a choice of activity, pupils generally select what is best for them.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Time to choose freely their own activity during the school day is a must for pupil morale.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Pupils learn best when permitted to set their own pace in doing the work.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
39.	A firm hand by the teacher promotes emotional security for pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Pupils do their best work when they know exactly what to expect from day to day.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Pupils must be kept busy or they soon get into trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Children need and should have more supervision and discipline than they usually get.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	A well established classroom routine enhances the emotional stability of pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Pupils must see clearly that it is the teacher, not they, who has charge of classroom learning.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Children learn the necessary skills of group participation only when they are exposed to sequences of activity requiring increasingly difficult skills from kindergarten through grade twelve.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	The effective teacher has complete control of the learning situation at all times.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	The teacher who organizes the material and presents it to pupils in a forceful way gets the best results.	1	2	3	4	5
48.	Establishing the rules well in advance strengthens the teacher's hand in meeting the various problems that might arise.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
49.	A teacher's effectiveness rests upon his ability to maintain proper "professional distance" between the pupils and himself.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Pupils are induced to greater motivation when the teacher remains somewhat aloof from the interpersonal affairs of the class.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	His effectiveness is seriously impaired when the teacher permits himself to become emotionally involved in the personal problems of pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
52.	The effectiveness of teaching is enhanced when the teacher has the ability to see the world as each of his pupils sees it.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	Students who misbehave or do not learn are generally children who need more love.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Children learn best in an atmosphere filled with love and emotional support.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	The teacher's ability to see the world as each of his students sees it is an absolute must if he is to have any success at all in teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
56.	Good rapport with pupils is maintained by the teacher who always finds time to help individuals with special problems.	1	2	3	4	5
57.	The use of sarcasm by the teacher can accomplish nothing but emotional harm for the pupil.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
58.	Learning is enhanced when teachers praise generously the accomplishments of pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
59.	The pupil's impression of the teacher's personality greatly influences what he learns.	1	2	3	4	5
60.	Pupils learn to stay alert when they are expected to respond immediately to teacher demands.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	In the interest of good discipline pupils who repeatedly disrupt the class must be severely punished.	1	2	3	4	5
62.	Proper control of a class is amply demonstrated when pupils work quietly while the teacher is out of the room.	1	2	3	4	5
63.	Optimum learning takes place when the classroom setting is completely free of distractions.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	Under ideal conditions pupils would view each teacher as a "specialist" in the subject taught.	1	2	3	4	5
65.	Pupils learn efficiently the essentials of a subject when every member of the class moves simultaneously through carefully planned lesson sequences.	1	2	3	4	5
66.	The natural flow of events is enhanced by the teacher who manages to eliminate any disruptive pupil behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
67.	A good teacher will establish a routine and stick to it.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
68.	The logical structure of subject matter is the most realistic guide to the organization of the work in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
69.	Pupils respect teachers who expect them to work hard in school.	1	2	3	4	5
70.	Lessons presented in the form of problems to be solved are the best means of motivating pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
71.	Pupils learn self direction by having opportunities to set their own goals for learning.	1	2	3	4	5
72.	Pupils respect teachers who stand firm on their convictions.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	The complexion of any worthwhile task in education requires hard work on the part of the pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
74.	Pupils gain more satisfaction from doing a difficult task well than any other achievement.	1	2	3	4	5
75.	Pupils never really understand a subject until they can relate what they have learned to the broader problems of the world.	1	2	3	4	5
76.	Teachers must always be prepared to explain to pupils interrelationships among various elements of the overall curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
77.	Teachers must set definite items aside to show pupils the relations between their subject and the overall goal of education.	1	2	3	4	5
78.	Pupils gain better understanding of the subject if assignments are					

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
	presented to them as a series of interrelated problems.	1	2	3	4	5
79.	The basic function of education is fulfilled only when pupils are led to understand the general significance of the material they have learned.	1	2	3	4	5
80.	If curriculum plans are to be developed, they must go into detail on how course content can be integrated across subjects.	1	2	3	4	5
81.	In planning their work teachers should rely heavily on the knowledge and skills pupils have acquired outside the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
82.	The pupil's knowledge is best developed when teachers interrelate facts and figures from many different subject fields.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	The deep interest which pupils sometimes develop in one subject can be valuable to them, but only if teachers succeed in broadening their perspectives across subject matter boundaries.	1	2	3	4	5
84.	The most important thing a teacher can do to set the stage for learning is to discover the interests of students.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	The teacher must avoid strict adherence to the sequence provided by a textbook series.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	An essential component of a good lesson is one of showing how it is related to other areas of knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

Table I

Summary of Analysis of Variance - Groups x Sex x Time - on Dimension of Self-Esteem

Source	df	M. S.	F
Between	111		
Groups	1	161.12	0.33
Sex	1	665.12	1.37
Groups x Sex	1	84.87	0.18
Error	108	484.14	
Within	112		
Time	1	780.00	37.98 *1
Time x Groups	1	872.00	42.46 *2
Time x Sex	1	19.43	0.95
Time x Groups x Sex	1	197.50	9.62 *3
Error	108	20.53	

*1 $p < .001$

*2 $p < .001$

*3 $p < .002$

Table II

Summary of Analysis of Variance - Groups x Sex x Time -

on Dimension of Behavior

Source	df	M. S.	F
Between	111		
Groups	1	1282.50	4.87 *[1]
Sex	1	37.75	0.14
Groups x Sex	1	480.25	1.82
Error	108	263.22	
Within	112		
Time	1	103.06	8.56 *[2]
Time x Groups	1	320.62	26.64 *[3]
Time x Sex	1	41.06	3.41
Time x Groups x Sex	1	31.31	2.60
Error	108	12.03	

*[1] $p < .02$

*[2] $p < .001$

*[3] $p < .001$

APPENDIX E

Table I

F-test to Determine Difference Between Pre-test Means on Self-Esteem Inventory

	Variance	df	F	Significance
Experimental	310.76	55	1.84	0.02
Control	142.75	55		

Table II

Analysis of Variance of Self-Esteem Scores

on Pre-test Employing Adjusted Means

Source	df	M. S.	F	Significance
Between groups	1	891.56	3.72	0.06
Within groups	110	239.41		

Table III

F-test to Determine Difference Between Pre-test Means on Behavior Rating Form

	Variance	df	F	Significance
Experimental	142.75	55	1.19	0.52
Control	169.93	55		

Table IV

Probability Matrix for Pearson Product-Moment Comparisons on Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs

Teachers	Experimental		Control	
	1	2	3	4
1	1.000	0.991	0.912	0.964
2	0.991	1.000	0.888	0.944
3	0.912	0.888	1.000	0.946
4	0.964	0.944	0.946	1.000